ISSN 1946-7664. MCFNS 2012 Vol. 4, Issue 1, pp. 50–65 Mathematical and Computational Forestry & Natural-Resource Sciences AVAILABLE ONLINE AT HTTP://MCFNS.COM

Submitted: Mar. 8, 2011 Accepted: Dec. 26, 2011 Published: Feb. 28, 2012 Last Correction: Feb. 28, 2012

COMPARING K NEAREST NEIGHBOURS METHODS AND LINEAR REGRESSION—IS THERE REASON TO SELECT ONE OVER THE OTHER?

Arto Haara¹, Annika Kangas²

¹Scientist, Joensuu Research Unit, Finnish Forest Research Institute, Finland ²Professor, Department of Forest Sciences, University of Helsinki, Finland

ABSTRACT. Non-parametric k nearest neighbours (k-nn) techniques are increasingly used in forestry problems, especially in remote sensing. Parametric regression analysis has the advantage of well-known statistical theory behind it, whereas the statistical properties of k-nn are less studied. In this study, we compared the relative performance of k-nn and linear regression in an experiment. We examined the effect of three different properties of the data and problem: 1) the effect of increasing non-linearity of the modelling task, 2) the effect of the assumptions concerning the population and 3) the effect of balance of the sample data. In order to be able to determine the effect of these three aspects, we used simulated data and simple modelling problems. K-nn and linear regression gave fairly similar results with respect to the average RMSEs. In both cases, balanced modelling dataset gave better results than unbalanced dataset. When the results were examined within diameter classes, the k-nn results were less biased than regression model results, especially with extreme values of diameter. The differences increased with increasing non-linearity of the model and increasing unbalance of the data. The difference between the methods was more obvious when the assumed model form was not exactly correct.

Keywords: Modelling, Regression, Imputation, Balanced Data, K Nearest Neighbour

1 INTRODUCTION

Models are needed for almost all forest inventory and planning calculation tasks. For instance, in most cases not all variables of interest are measured for all trees. Typically, some easily measured tree and stand characteristics \mathbf{x} are measured on all sample trees (later called tally trees). Characteristics y, whose measurement can be very time-consuming and expensive, are measured only in a smaller sample of trees (later called height sample trees). Models are then used to predict these variables \mathbf{v} for tally trees as a function of the variables \mathbf{x} measured for all trees. Besides, the common problem of missing data in forest inventory and planning databases necessitates the use of statistical methods as imputation methods (Eskelson et al. $\tilde{2}009$). Furthermore, a need to forecast the growth and yield in forest management planning is one important reason for the use of statistical methods.

In recent decades, alternatives to traditional regression models, namely non-parametric methods (Fan, 2000), have been increasingly used. The increased use of non-parametric methods is based on their flexibility compared to corresponding parametric methods (Gibbons and Chakraborti 1992, Fan 2000). For instance, the non-parametric methods may describe a wider range of non-linear model forms with a large number of possible independent variables. They do not require complete knowledge about the model form, and they are based on fewer assumptions. Another justification for the use of many non-parametric methods is their simple application. However, parametric methods are well known and have a solid statistical theory behind them, for instance, with analytical estimates for model accuracy.

One widely used non-parametric method is the knearest neighbour (k-nn) method. In k-nn, the dependent variable is predicted as a weighted mean of k nearest observations in a database, where the nearness is defined in terms of similarity with respect to the independent variables of the model. There are a lot of different options available, concerning the selected distance measure, the weighting scheme and the number of neighbours.

With k-nn it is easier to reproduce non-linear depen-

dencies than with parametric methods. On the other hand, obtaining reliable predictions may require a larger dataset with k-nn than with parametric models, as good performance of k-nn requires that all x-values of target units have close neighbours (Magnussen et al.2010). In addition, the k-nn method is inevitably biased, as no prediction can be larger (smaller) than the weighted mean of largest (smallest) k values of y in the dataset (Magnussen et al.2010). It means that the extreme values of y are biased towards the mean. The parametric models are not expected to have this sort of bias within the used data range, but obviously, the predictions can be highly biased in a case of extrapolation. Non-parametric methods retain more of the original (co)variation than parametric models (Moeur and Stage 1995, Kangas and Korhonen 1996, McRoberts et al. 2002), although the full (co)variation is only preserved with k=1 (Moeur and Stage 1995, McRoberts 2009).

When a random sample is taken from the population, it is often unbalanced. It means that the data is sparse in certain areas, e.g. with a small number of observations having small and/or high values of independent variables (see Vieilledent et al.2009). This is adequate for most purposes, but for modelling purposes a balanced sample with an equal number of observations from different parts of data may be more advantageous. Such a sample can be obtained, e.g. with stratified sampling.

There are few studies, in which parametric and nonparametric methods are compared in forest modelling. Vieilledent et al.(2009) demonstrated semi-parametric mortality model's capacity to produce unbiased estimates for extreme diameters when compared to parametric mortality models. Metcalf et al.(2009) presented nonparametric Bayesian method for modelling increased mortality of large trees even when data are sparse. The method was compared with the parametric model to place the new estimates within the context of previous work on tree mortality. Dobbertin and Biging (1997) used non-parametric classifier CART to model forest tree mortality. In the study CART was also compared with parametric logistic regression. Fehrmann et al. (2008) compared linear regression models and k-nearest neighbour approach for estimation of single-tree biomass. Temesgen (2003) examined parameter prediction and most similar neighbour approaches to estimate stand tables from aerial information. There are also some studies besides Metcalf et al. (2009), in which the influence of sparse data is evaluated (e.g. Vieilledent et al. $\tilde{2}009$, Maltamo et al. $\tilde{2}009$).

The studied non-parametric and semi-parametric models have been working well compared to the parametric methods. Each of these studies is a case study, however, and it is not evident whether the differences between the modelling methods are due to the specific problem or due to the properties of the dataset, or if they are due to the modelling method. The purpose of this study is to analyze the relative performance of k-nn and linear regression in different conditions. We examined the effect of three different properties of the data and problem: 1) the effect of increasing non-linearity of the modelling task, 2) the effect of the assumptions concerning the population and 3) the effect of balance of the sample data.

2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

In order to analyse the effect of increasing nonlinearity of the modelling task, we compared k-nn method and linear regression in three modelling problems: mean height (stand level data, Norway spruce), height (tree level data, Scots pine) and mortality (tree level data, Scots pine) models. The basic data used for each task was NFI data, to ensure realistic populations (Figure 1). In all modelling cases, we had just one independent variable, the stand mean diameter (D_{qM}) in stand level models or the tree diameter (dbh) in tree level models. While more complex models are more common in practise, including several independent variables would have made the experiment more complicated. We also assumed that in a simple experiment the potential differences between the tested methods could be seen more clearly.

In order to analyse the effect of different assumptions concerning the population, we created two artificial populations for each of the modelling tasks by simulation. This was carried out by simulating the data sets with two different methods, namely a parametric regression model and a k-nn model, with slightly different assumptions (Figure 1). The same methods were later tested in both populations at the modelling stage. This made it possible to examine the effect of the correctness of the used assumptions on the modelling. Finally, we tested the effect of having a balanced or unbalanced sample from the population. The balance here refers to the equal number of observations in different diameter classes. The problems with varying data ranges, as well as the selection of the optimal model shape, were left out from this study.

In each of the three modelling cases, we simulated four modelling and corresponding test data sets (Figure 1):

- 1. Balanced data simulated with parametric regression RB
- 2. Balanced data simulated with non-parametric k-nn KB
- 3. Unbalanced data simulated with parametric regression RU



Figure 1: The flowchart of the tests carried out in each modelling task, assuming the modelling and test data coming from similarly distributed but independent samples (B/B or U/U).

4. Unbalanced data simulated with non-parametric knn KU

The two simulation methods with different assumptions represent two different populations, and the balanced and unbalanced set two different samples from each of the populations.

Each modelling and test data set was then used for testing both regression method and k-nn method, producing eight different models and eight different tests: RB/BR, RU/UR, RB/BK, RU/UK, KB/BR, KB/BK,KU/UR,KU/UK (Figure 1). In addition, we made a test where the modelling data were balanced and the test data unbalanced and vice versa, producing additional 8 tests RB/UR, RU/BR, RB/UK, RU/BK, KB/UR, KB/UK,KU/BR,KU/BK. Thus, we used different types of samples of each population for modelling and testing. Overall, for each of the three modelling problems there were 16 different tests carried out, but not all the results are shown.

3 MATERIAL

The data consisted of observations from the permanent sample plots of the Finnish National Forest Inventory (NFI) (Valtakunnan... 1986, Tomppo, 2006). All the Northern NFI plots were excluded from the analysis.

The sample plots were measured systematically on field tracts located throughout the country. Each tract included four plots, the centres of which were located 400 m apart (from north to south), the tracts themselves being 16 km apart (from north to south and from east to west). Trees with dbh larger than 10 cm were assessed in circular plots of 0.03 hectare and trees with dbh smaller than 10 cm in plots of 0.01 hectare. Tree species and dbh were measured from all trees within plot. Furthermore, each tree within the circle with radius half that of the plot was measured as a height sample tree.

NFI plot data measured in 1995 were used as modelling data for mean height (NFI mean height data) and height (NFI height data). NFI plot data measured both in 1985 and 1995 were used as modelling data for mortality (NFI mortality data). The average values for the tree and stratum variables of the plots of the three datasets are presented in Table 1.

4 Methods

4.1 Parametric models Mean height (H_{gM}) , tree height (h) and tree mortality were first modelled in three original NFI datasets. The selected model forms were

Data	Species	n	Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Mean height	Spruce	1001	D_{gM}, cm	18.6	8.3	0.7	46.5
	Spruce	1001	$\check{\mathrm{H}}_{gM},\mathrm{m}$	14.6	6.4	1.6	35.1
Height	Pine	6279	$d\check{b}h,{ m cm}$	12.8	7.5	0.3	47.2
	Pine	6279	h, m	9.9	5.4	1.4	28.6
Mortality	Pine, alive	19673	dbh, cm	15.5	9.7	0.1	46.0
	Pine, dead	654	<i>dbh</i> , cm	16.1	10.5	0.1	45.0

Table 1: Summary statistics for tree (height and mortality) and stratum (mean height) characteristics in three NFI data sets.

later also used for modelling in the simulated datasets. In case of mean height, a simple linear regression model with mean diameter (D_{gM}) as an independent variable was fitted to NFI mean height data

$$H_{gMi} = a_0 + a_1 D_{gMi} + e_i$$
 (1)

where a_0 and a_1 are parameters, H_{gMi} is the mean height, D_{gMi} is the mean diameter and e_i random error in stand *i*. In case of tree height, different parametric regression models with tree *dbh* and its modifications as independent variables depending on the model were fitted to NFI height data, and the most accurate model was selected. The chosen regression model was

$$h_i = a_0 + a_1 dbh_i + a_2 dbh_i^2 + e_i \tag{2}$$

where a_0 , a_1 and a_2 are parameters, h_i is the height, dbh_i is the diameter and e_i random error for tree *i*.

Individual tree mortality was modelled with logistic regression as a parametric model, and was fitted to NFI mortality data. The response variable p was a binary variable indicating whether tree survives (p = 1) or dies (p = 0). *Dbh* and some of its modifications were tested as independent variables, and finally *dbh* and *dbh*² were chosen as independent variables. The logistic model was formulated as follows:

$$p_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\left(a_0 + a_1 dbh_i^2 + a_2 dbh_i^2\right)}} + e_i \tag{3}$$

where a_0, a_1 and a_2 were parameters to be estimated, p_i is the probability of surviving, dbh_i is the diameter and e_i random error for tree *i*.

4.2 Non-parametric models The k- nearest neighbour method (k-nn e.g. Härdle 1989, Altman, 1992) was used as a non-parametric method in the three modelling tasks. The estimates of the mean height and height for the target observations were calculated as weighted averages of the k nearest observations as

$$\hat{y}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_{ij} y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_{ij}}$$
(4)

where k is a number of nearest neighbours used, y_i is the observed value of dependent variable (mean height H_{gM} , height h or propability p according to the modelling task) of neighbouring tree/stratum i, \hat{y} is the respective prediction for target observation j and w_{ij} is the weight of a neighbouring tree/stratum i for the target tree/stratum j. The weight was calculated as follows:

$$w_{ij} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{1+d_{ij}}\right)^{pm}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{1}{1+d_{ij}}\right)^{pm}} \tag{5}$$

where d_{ij} is the similarity distance between *i* and *j* and *pm* is the weighting parameter $(i \neq j)$ (e.g. Haara et al.1997, Sironen et al.2008). It was defined as

$$d_{ij} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} c_l |x_{il} - x_{jl}|$$
(6)

where L is the number of independent variables (here one, i. e. dbh or D_{gM}), and c their respective weights.

Table 2: Frequencies of observations by mean diameter classes of the NFI mean height data and both simulated balanced and unbalanced datasets.

Class	Mean di-	NFI	Un-	Balanced
	ameter	mean	balanced	model
	range, cm	height	model	and test
		data, n	and test	data, n
			data, n	
1	0-4.999	46	460	1111
2	5 - 9.999	81	810	1111
3	10 - 14.999	251	2510	1111
4	15 - 19.999	210	2100	1111
5	20 - 24.999	188	1880	1111
6	25 - 29.999	120	1200	1111
7	30 - 34.999	74	740	1111
8	35 - 39.999	25	250	1111
9	40-	6	60	1111

		NFI heigh	nt data	Simulated	unbal-	Simulated	bal-
				anced		anced	
Class	Range, cm	model	test	model	test	model	test
1	0-4.999	525	534	525	534	351	347
2	5 - 9.999	607	623	615	615	342	356
3	10 - 14.999	985	969	992	962	342	356
4	15 - 19.999	532	566	546	552	368	330
5	20 - 24.999	283	244	269	258	338	360
6	25 - 29.999	117	116	107	126	358	340
7	30 - 34.999	66	52	63	55	362	336
8	35 - 39.999	17	29	16	30	346	352
9	40-	7	7	7	7	333	362
Total		3140	3139	3140	3139	3140	3139

Table 3: Frequencies of trees by diameter classes of the NFI height data and both simulated balanced and unbalanced data.

Table 4: Frequencies of trees and dead trees by diameter classes of the NFI mortality data and of the simulated balanced and unbalanced test data. R: regression model, K: k-nn method, U: unbalanced dataset, B: balanced dataset.

		Trees tota	lly, n	Dead trees, n (%)				
Dia-	Range, cm	NFI morta-	Bal-	NFI mor-	RU	RB	KU	KB
meter		lity and un-	anced	tality				
class		balanced	data	data				
		data						
1	0-4.999	4130	2032	238(5.8)	228(5.5)	111(5.5)	233 (5.6)	114(5.6)
2	5 - 9.999	4595	2032	142(3.1)	176(3.8)	79(3.9)	146(3.2)	64(3.1)
3	10 - 14.999	5421	2032	165(3.0)	149(2.7)	57(2.8)	160(3.0)	60(3.0)
4	15 - 19.999	2860	2032	61(2.1)	63(2.2)	47(2.3)	62(2.2)	44(2.2)
5	20 - 24.999	1672	2032	28(1.7)	33(2.0)	41(2.0)	29(1.7)	35(1.7)
6	25 - 29.999	972	2032	10(1.0)	18(1.9)	42(2.1)	9(0.9)	19(0.9)
7	30 - 34.999	460	2032	6(1.3)	9(2.0)	44(2.2)	6(1.3)	25(1.2)
8	35 - 39.999	161	2032	1(0.6)	4(2.5)	50(2.5)	1 (0.6)	14(0.7)
9	40 - 44.999	42	2032	2(4.8)	1(2.4)	48(2.4)	1(2.4)	50(2.5)
10	45-	14	2032	1(7.1)	1(7.1)	145(7.0)	1(7.1)	124(6.1)

The probability of mortality of the target tree was predicted as the proportion of dead trees among the k nearest neighbours. Tree diameter dbh was used as only variable in distance function.

The weighting parameter pm and the number of nearest neighbours k were determined using multi-objective optimisation (e.g. Haara 2002). The non-linear programming algorithm (Hooke and Jeeves 1984) was used to find the combination of decision variables minimising the average absolute difference between the observed and predicted value of each dependent variable (i.e. mean height, tree height, and mortality) using leave-oneout cross-validation. The computer program developed by Osyczka (1984) was modified and adapted to deal with the k-nn method. Optimization is needed, when approaches such as canonical correlations (Moeur and Stage 1995) are not used. However, also heuristic search such as genetic algorithm could have been used (Tomppo and Halme 2004). The optimal weighting parameter pmwas 1.445 and the optimal number of nearest neighbours used in the calculations was 30 and 1.445.

In addition, a locally adjusted k-nearest neighbour method (local k-nn method, e.g. Malinen 2003) was also used to model mortality. In case of locally adjusted mortality models, the amount of neighbours varied depending on the diameter of the target tree. The amount of neighbour trees was derived from the number of trees of the diameter class to which the target tree belonged, i.e., in diameter classes, in which the number of trees was smaller fewer neighbours were used.

Simulated datasets Balanced and unbalanced 4.3datasets in regard to the independent variable, dbh or \mathbf{D}_{gM} , were generated for each of the three modelling problems. Observations in the original NFI datasets were grouped to 5 cm dbh/ D_{aM} classes, and the amounts of observations within each dbh/D_{gM} class were calculated. In the case of height and mortality datasets, same amount of trees within each dbh class as in NFI height and mortality data were generated randomly for the simulated datasets. In the case of the NFI mean height data the number of observations in each mean diameter class was first multiplied by ten to get the same number of observations than in former two cases (Table 2). In other two cases, the simulated datasets were as large as the original ones (Tables 3 and 4).

In all three datasets most of the observations were middle sized trees. Thus these datasets formed unbalanced modelling and test datasets. Balanced modelling and test datasets consisted of same total amount of observations than unbalanced datasets, but the observations were divided approximately evenly between the diameter classes.

Then, the values of dependent variables for each three modelling problems were generated using parametric and non-parametric models fitted to the original data. In case of mean height and height models, a normally distributed N(0, $\sigma^2)$ random component δ was added to the predictions. The variance of the distribution, σ^2 , was obtained from the residual variance of the respective models fitted to the original NFI data (Table 3). In the case of parametric regression, we assumed the variance to be heteroscedastic, and simulated the errors using relative standard error $(h_i = h_i(1 + \delta_i))$. In the case of k-nn, we assumed the variance to be homoscedastic, and simulated the random components using a constant (absolute) variance $(\tilde{h}_i = h_i + \delta_i)$. This was done in order to produce slightly different populations. For the sake of simplicity, we assumed non-correlated errors. In all k-nn data simulations, the NFI datasets were used as reference datasets.

In case of mortality models, the mortality rate of each generated tree for 10 years period was first predicted with fitted models. The averages of the predicted mortality rates of the trees within each class were calculated, and the amount of dead trees was achieved by multiplying these averages with the amount of trees within diameter class. Dead trees were then selected randomly within each diameter class.



Figure 2: The relationship between mean diameter (D_{gM}) and mean height (H_{gM}) in observed NFI data (a), and in two simulated unbalanced dataset, generated by utilizing regression model (b) and by utilizing k-nn method (c).

4.4 Accuracy characteristics The test criteria used in the selection of variables and parameters of the two methods were RMSEs and the prediction bias, estimated

	3 6 1 111	m i	TT (1	DMOD	D'	T
Simulation method	Modelling	Test	Tested	RMSE	Bias	Error
	data	data	method	(%)	(%)	Index
NFI mean height data	U		R	16.8	0.00	1.1879
NFI mean height data	U		Κ	16.4	0.08	0.1931
R	В	В	R	16.2	-0.84	0.5226
R	В	В	Κ	17.0	-0.90	0.8473
R	U	U	R	16.8	0.07	0.7625
R	U	U	Κ	17.7	0.12	0.9170
Κ	В	В	R	16.0	0.00	1.1292
Κ	В	В	Κ	13.6	-0.11	0.0698
Κ	U	U	R	16.4	0.00	1.2147
К	U	U	Κ	15.5	1.07	0.2941
R	U	В	R	16.2	-1.2	0.5522
R	U	В	Κ	16.6	-0.50	0.4951
R	В	U	R	16.8	0.35	0.7298
R	В	U	Κ	17.5	1.08	0.8272
К	U	В	R	18.2	-4.65	1.1897
К	U	В	Κ	13.7	0.39	0.1142
Κ	В	U	R	17.6	3.97	1.1435
К	В	U	Κ	15.5	0.81	0.1311

Table 5: Accuracy of the estimates of the mean height models of spruce in different settings and error indexes. R: regression model, K: k-nn method, U: unbalanced dataset, B: balanced data set.

as

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(Y_{i} - \hat{Y}_{i}\right)^{2}}{n-1}} \tag{7}$$

$$bias = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1} \left(Y_i - \dot{Y}_i \right), \tag{8}$$

denotes the true value of the tree/stratum

where Y_i denotes the true value of the tree/stratum characteristics, Y_i denotes the predicted value of the tree/stratum characteristics, and n is the number of trees/strata. The relative RMSEs and biases were obtained by dividing estimates of RMSEs and biases by the averages of the true tree/stratum characteristics concerned. In addition, we analyzed the accuracy (prediction bias and variance) in dbh/D_{gM} classes, and calculated an error index. The error index was calculated as a mean of absolute differences of each diameter class. In addition, average distances (in the feature space) of the nearest neighbouring tree and 50 nearest trees were calculated within each dataset, i.e. in the NFI data and in the simulated datasets.

In k-nn calculations of the original NFI mean height data, the accuracy was calculated using leave-one-out cross validation because of the smaller amount of observations. In all other cases, k-nn results were calculated using independent modelling and test datasets.



Figure 3: Average mean distances (mm) of the mean diameters of the target trees from the mean diameters of the 50 nearest neighbouring trees by mean diameter classes on unbalanced and balanced model datasets.

5 Results

5.1 Mean height models of Norway spruce The simulated dataset based on regression and simulated errors based on relative error produced a population, which imitate the true data very well with respect to the variation (Figure 2). In k-nn-based dataset the variation of small trees was larger than in true data. On the other hand, the k-nn based simulation produced dataset



Figure 4: Residuals of mean height in the mean diameter classes for regression model in a) balanced and b) unbalanced data, and for k-nn method in c) balanced and d) unbalanced data. Data were simulated using regression model.

that especially in the case of large trees imitated the true data better than the regression-based dataset: with largest D_{gM} :s the dependency did not seem to be exactly linear.

The average distances are somewhat different in the NFI data and the simulated datasets. The difference is, however, mostly due to the difference in sizes of these datasets. The differences between balanced and unbalanced datasets seemed negligible, but when the distances were examined within diameter classes, the distances in the unbalanced datasets were clearly larger than those in balanced data in extreme diameter classes (Fig. 3).

In the original data, the RMSE and error index was

smaller for k-nn and bias for regression (Table 5). However, zero bias in regression is due to not using an independent test dataset. In the simulated data, the RMSEs and prediction biases of the mean heights were quite similar for both methods, and in both cases balanced datasets gave better results than unbalanced datasets (Table 5). When the results were examined within diameter classes in test datasets generated with regression model, the methods were equally accurate (Fig. 4). The error indices were smaller for the regression method (Table 5). In case of k-nn method being the generation method of test data, the predictions of the k-nn method were less biased than regression model predic-



Figure 5: Residuals of mean height in the mean diameter classes for regression model in a) balanced and b) unbalanced data, and for k-nn method in c) balanced and d) unbalanced data. Data were simulated using k-nn method.

tions (Fig. 5), and the error indices of k-nn method were clearly smaller than those with regression model (Table 5). In original data, the differences between the methods were smaller with respect to RMSE than in the simulated data, but with respect to the error index, the differences were as high as in the data simulated with k-nn.

Next we mixed the datasets so that when balanced data were used for modelling, unbalanced data were used for testing and vice versa. It means that the modelling and test data had different distributions. When the data simulation was based on regression, the RMSE of the knn method improved, but that of the regression method remained in the same level (Table 5). When the data simulation was based on k-nn, the RMSE of regression worsened, but that of the k-nn method remained at the same level (Table 5). The average bias level was clearly higher with both methods than in the case of similar test and modelling data.

5.2 Height models of Scots pine In the test dataset compiled of original NFI data, k-nn produced smaller bias and error index, but slightly higher RMSE than regression (Table 6). In the simulated data, the



Figure 6: Residuals of the height of the diameter classes of pine for regression model in a) balanced and b) unbalanced data, and for k-nn method in c) balanced and d) unbalanced data. Data were simulated using regression model.

average RMSEs and biases were a little smaller for balanced datasets, whereas the differences between the predictions from the regression models and the k-nn method were negligible (Table 6). When regression was the generation method, and the results were examined within diameter classes, the predictions of the k-nn method were a little less biased than regression model predictions in both datasets (Fig. 6). The error indices of the k-nn method were also smaller (Table 6). When the knn method was generation method of model and test data, classwise biases, as well as error indices of the knn method were clearly smaller than those of regression (Fig. 7, Table 6).

When the balanced and unbalanced datasets were mixed, i.e. the distributions of the observations of the modelling data and test data differed, the biases and error indices increased in the same way as in the case of mean height model (results not shown). The performance order of the methods also could change: when regression was the simulation method, the error indices of regression model were now smaller than those obtained with k-nn method. When the simulation method was k-nn, no such change was observed.

59

Simulation method	Modelling data	Test data	Tested method	RMSE $(\%)$	Bias $(\%)$	Error Index
NFI height test data	U		R	23.50	0.92	0.5277
NFI height test data	U		Κ	23.82	-0.38	0.3830
R	В	В	R	19.97	0.09	0.4608
R	В	В	Κ	19.96	0.18	0.1227
R	U	\mathbf{U}	\mathbf{R}	23.84	-0.27	0.5209
R	U	\mathbf{U}	Κ	24.17	-0.09	0.3398
Κ	В	В	R	16.97	-0.45	0.5083
Κ	В	В	Κ	16.62	-0.20	0.1706
Κ	U	\mathbf{U}	\mathbf{R}	24.64	-0.02	0.9948
Κ	U	U	Κ	24.3	0.30	0.2008

Table 6: Accuracy of the estimates of height models of spruce and error indexes. R: regression model, K: k-nn method, U: unbalanced dataset, B: balanced data set.

Table 7: Error indexes of mortality models of spruce. R: regression model, K: k-nn method, U: unbalanced dataset, B: balanced data set, LK: locally adjusted k-nn method.

Simulation method	Modelling data	Test data	Tested method	Error Index
NFI mortality test data	U		R	0.007398
NFI mortality test data	U		Κ	0.007753
R	В	В	R	0.004532
R	В	В	Κ	0.000464
R	U	\mathbf{U}	R	0.009892
R	U	U	Κ	0.005252
R	U	U	LK	0.001891
Κ	В	В	R	0.009947
Κ	В	В	Κ	0.000455
Κ	U	U	R	0.013936
Κ	U	\mathbf{U}	Κ	0.007179
Κ	U	U	LK	0.003044

5.3 Mortality models of Scots pine In case of balanced test data generated with regression model, the predictions of both parametric and non-parametric methods were mostly equal (Fig. 8 upper). Only in the predictions of mortality of large trees, the non-parametric model fitted slightly better. The error index was clearly better with k-nn method (Table 7). In unbalanced mortality dataset, in turn, the predictions of the parametric method were highly biased in large diameter classes (Fig. 8 lower). This was also a case for k-nn method, whereas in case of locally adjusted k-nn method, the predictions were accurate also in large diameter classes. Besides, the error index of locally adjusted k-nn method was clearly smallest (Table 7).

When the simulated data were generated with k-nn, the differences between methods were more clear. The regression method performed clearly worse than k-nn in balanced (Fig 9 upper), but even more so in unbalanced case (Fig 9 lower). The regression also performed clearly worse than in the population simulated with regression.

When mortality of pine in balanced data was predicted with models, which had been fitted to unbalanced data, the results were similar to the case where both datasets were unbalanced (results not shown). Likewise, in the opposite case, the results were similar to the case where both datasets were balanced. In both cases, the results were determined by the balance of the modelling data.

5.4 The variance of predictions compared to the original variance K-nn method and linear regression were also studied with respect to their ability of retaining the original variance. The results of the two methods were quite similar in general. Depending on the case, the k-nn method seemed sometimes better and sometimes worse (Fig 10). Within diameter classes, k-nn seemed to retain the variation better in middle classes, while parametric model was often better in extreme classes.



Figure 7: Residuals of the height of the diameter classes of pine for regression model in a) balanced and b) unbalanced data, and for k-nn method in c) balanced and d) unbalanced data. Data were simulated using k-nn method.

In this study, k-nn method and linear regression were compared in three modelling problems with the relationship between the dependent and independent variable varying from linear to highly non-linear. We used simulated datasets, in order to be able to test the influence of assumptions concerning the properties of the population. The assumptions of interest were that of true model shape and homogeneity of variance. In addition, we examined the effect of balance of the sample data. We used independent test datasets to compare the parametric and non-parametric methods.

6 DISCUSSION

The datasets used were simulated using either knn method or linear regression model as basis, using dbh/D_{gM} as sole independent variable. The populations simulated with these two methods varied with respect to the model shape and homogeneity of variance. In the populations generated with parametric regression, the model form is exactly the same both in data simulation and in modelling. The true model form was thus known exactly. In the populations generated with k-nn, the form of the relationship in simulated data was based



Figure 8: Classwise mortality of pine in simulated balanced (upper) and unbalanced (lower) test data and classwise predictions of mortality of logistic model (pred_model) and k-nn method (pred_knn). Data were simulated using logistic model.

on observations. In this population there is no guarantee the used parametric model form is "correct", even though it was deemed to be the best fitting model. In the former case, we assumed the variance heteroscedastic and in the latter case homoscedastic. We did not test the compatibility of the generated (unbalanced) test datasets with the true datasets, as with this large a dataset the hypothesis of compatibility is likely to be rejected.

In addition, we assumed all the errors independent. This is a simplification from a true situation. This assumption was left for further studies, as the experiment included quite many datasets and assumptions as it is. However, as accounting for the correlations is much less studied in the case of non-parametric methods (see Sironen et al.2010), it is important to study it in the future.

The average RMSEs of the methods were quite similar, and in both cases balanced modelling dataset gave



62

Figure 9: Classwise mortality of pine in simulated balanced (upper) and unbalanced (lower) test data and classwise predictions of mortality of logistic model (pred_model) and k-nn method (pred_knn). Simulated data have been generated by k-nn.

better results than unbalanced dataset. It is often assumed that k-nn retains the variation original better than regression. In the studied case, with a high number of neighbours, this is not self-evident. However, in unbalanced dataset the k-nn seemed to retain the variation a little better than regression, while in balanced case the situation seemed to be opposite. The variation in both cases seemed more difficult to retain with the extreme values of independent variables.

It can be proved that k-nn results are biased towards the mean with the extreme values of the independent variables (Magnussen et al.2010). In the case of regression, this sort of bias should not occur. When the results were examined within diameter classes, the k-nn results were, however, less biased than regression model results with these extreme dbh/D_{gM} classes. The differences increased with increasing non-linearity of the model and increasing unbalance of the data. It was a bit surpris-



Figure 10: Standard deviations of a) the observed and predicted heights in balanced data and b) the observed mean heights and predicted mean heights in unbalanced data with respect to diameter classes.

ing that even when the true model form was known (i.e. the fitted model had the same form that was used as a basis for the simulation), and the non-linearity was light or nonexistent, parametric models produced models with increasing bias in the largest diameter classes in an unbalanced data (Fig. 4, 6 and 8). It seems thus that parametric models are not safe from the bias at the extremes, although that bias cannot be analytically derived in the same way as for the non-parametric models.

In this study, the datasets were generated with two different methods, namely regression and k-nn. In all three cases, regression performed clearly better in dataset generated with regression than with k-nn. Likewise, k-nn performed better when the data were generated with k-nn rather than with regression. This is not a surprise as such. What is more interesting is that in this case also the differences between regression and k-nn were more pronounced (Fig. 5, 7 and 9).

This is most probably due to the fact that in the first one, the model is smooth and its correct form is

known while in the latter, the model is not necessarily as smooth and the correct form is not exactly known. Thus, it seems that parametric regression is very sensitive to the form of the true model, while the k-nn is not. The best performance of linear regression can then only be achieved when the true model form is known.

The variance assumptions did not seem to have any marked effect here. Even when the datasets were mixed so that the modelling dataset was heteroscedastic and the test data were homoscedastic or vice versa, the variance assumption did not seem to have any effect. On the other hand, it is possible that the heteroscedastic dataset has influential observations, i.e. observations that have extreme diameter and a large error, which may affect to the coefficients of the model. This may partly explain the bias in the largest diameter classes. If so, then studying this effect is important in the future. Anyway, it seems that k-nn is safer against such influential observations. The locally adjusted k-nn was only tested with respect to mortality model, but it seems to give the best results in all different cases, and it is thus the most robust of the studied methods.

This result, however, requires that the modelling and test datasets have a similar distribution: if the distributions are different, for instance the ranges of the datasets are not similar, regression model may be more robust. In the studied cases, the differences between the distributions were examined by mixing balanced and unbalanced datasets, i.e. by examining if model estimated with balanced data works well in unbalanced test data and vice versa. In this analysis, regression-based model performed almost as well as in the original cases, provided the true model form was known (Tables 5 and 6). Nonetheless, especially in case of high non-linearity, like mortality with respect to diameter, use of balanced data as a modelling data can produce more accurate estimates in unbalanced test data compared with situation, in which independent unbalanced data are used as a modelling data and balanced data as a test data.

The study results of the differences between parametric and non-parametric methods in modelling mortality follow the results of Vieilledent et al.2009. The increasingly biased estimates of the unbalanced test datasets with respect to increasing non-linearity makes it important to evaluate the models in situation, in which the extrapolation outside the limits of the modelling data can be possible (e.g. Hamilton 1990, Magnussen et al.2010). Overall, non-parametric methods seem more robust than parametric with highly non-linear settings. Likewise, it seems to be a more robust option in unbalanced data. It should be further studied, however, if a small number of observations would favour using regression methods.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank the anonymous referees for their efforts in improving our text. This work was funded by the Academy of Finland (Decision No. 116313).

References

- Altman, N.S. 1992. An introduction to kernel and nearest-neighbor nonparametric regression. Journal of the American Statistical Association 46: 175–185.
- Dobbertin, M. and G.S. Biging. 1997. Using the nonparametric classifier CART to model forest tree mortality. For. Sci. 44(4): 507–516.
- Eskelson, B.N.I., H. Temesgen, V. LeMay, T.M. Barrett, N.L. Crookston, and A.T. Hudak. 2009. The roles of nearest neighbor methods in imputing missing data in forest inventory and monitoring databases. Scand. J. For. Res. 24(3): 235–246.
- Fan, J. 2000. Prospects of nonparametric modelling. Journal of American Statistical Association 95: 1296– 1300.
- Fehrmann, L., A. Lehtonen, C. Kleinn, and E. Tomppo. 2008. Comparison of linear and mixed-effect regression models and a k-nearest neighbour approach for estimation of single-tree biomass. Can. J. For. Res. 38: 1–9.
- Gibbons, J.D. and S. Chakraborti. 1992. Nonparametric statistical inference. Third Edition. Marcel Dekker, Inc. New York, 544 p.
- Kasvuennusteiden luotettavuuden selvittäminen knn-menetelmällä ja monitavoiteoptimoinnilla. Metsätieteen aikakauskirja 3/2002: 391–406. (In Finnish)
- Haara, A., M. Maltamo, and T. Tokola. 1997. The knearest-neighbour method for estimating basal-area diameter distribution. Scand. J. For. Res. 12: 200– 208.
- Hamilton, D.A. 1990. Extending the range of applicability of an individual tree mortality model. Can. J. For. Res. 20: 1212–1218.
- Härdle, W. 1989. Applied nonparametric regression. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge, 323 p.
- Hooke, R. and T.A. Jeeves. 1961. 'Direct search' solution of numerical and statistical problems. Journal of the ACM 8: 212–229.

- Magnussen, S., E. Tomppo, and R.E. McRoberts. 2010. A model-assisted k-nearest neighbour approach to remove extrapolation bias. Scand. J. For. Res. 25: 174– 184.
- Malinen, J. 2003. Locally AdapTable Non-parametric Methods for Estimating Stand Characteristics for Wood Procurement Planning. Silva Fennica 37: 109– 120.
- Maltamo, M., E. Næsset, O.M. Bollandsås, T. Gobakke, and P. Packalén. 2009. Non-parametric prediction of diameter distributions using airborne laser scanner data. Scand. J. For. Res. 24(6): 541–553.
- McRoberts, R.E., M.D. Nelson, and D.G. Wendt. 2002. Stratified estimation of forest area using satellite imagery, inventory data, and the k-Nearest Neighbors technique. Remote Sens. Environ. 82: 457–468.
- McRoberts, R.E. 2009. Diagnostic tools for nearest neighbors techniques when used with satellite imagery. Remote Sens. Environ. 113: 489–499.
- Metcalf, C.J.E., S.M. McMahon, and J.S. Clark. 2009. Overcoming data sparseness and parametric constraints in modeling of tree mortality: a new nonparametric Bayesian model. Can. J. For. Res. 39: 1677– 1687.
- Moeur, M. and A.R. Stage. 1995. Most Similar Neighbor. An improved sampling inference procedure for natural resource planning. For. Sci. 41: 337–359.
- Osyczka, A. 1984. Multicriterion optimization in engineering with Fortran programs. Ellis Horwood, Chichester, 178 p.
- Sironen, S., A. Kangas, M. Maltamo, and J. Kalliovirta. 2008. Localizing of growth estimates using nonparametric imputation methods. For. Ecol. Manage. 256: 674–684.
- Sironen, S., A. Kangas, and M. Maltamo. 2010. Comparison of different non-parametric growth imputation methods in the presence of dependent observations. Forestry 83: 39–51.
- Temesgen, H. 2003. Estimating stand tables from aerial attributes: a comparison of a parametric prediction and most similar neighbour methods. Scand. J. For. Res. 18: 279–288.
- Tomppo, E. and M. Halme. 2004. Using coarse scale forest variables as ancillary information and weighting of variables in k-nn estimation: a genetic algorithm approach. Remote Sens. Environ. 92: 1–20.

- Tomppo, E. 2006. Finnish NFI, p. 295–308 in: Kangas. A. and M. Maltamo. (eds.), Forest Inventory. Methodology and Applications. Managing Forest Ecosystems, vol. 10, Springer (2006).
- Vieilledent, G., B. Courbaud, G. Kunstler, J-F. Dhôte, and J.S. Clark. 2009. Biases in the estimation of size-

dependent mortality models: advantages of a semiparametric approach. Can. J. For. Res. 39: 1430–1443.

Valtakunnan metsien 8. inventointi. Pysyvien koealojen kenttätyön ohjeet 1985-86. 2. painos. Finnish Forest Research Institute. (in Finnish)